



Preparation and photodegradation activity of high aspect ratio rutile TiO₂ single crystal nanorods

Chunrong Xiong^{a,b,c,*}, Xiangyun Deng^{b,c}, Jianbao Li^{b,c}

^a Department of Chemical Engineering, Lab of Petrochemical Technology, Hainan University, Haikou 570228, PR China

^b Department of Materials, Hainan Provincial Key Laboratory of Research on Utilization of Si-Zr-Ti Resources, Hainan University, Haikou 570228, PR China

^c Department of Materials, Key Laboratory of Ministry of Education for Application Technology of Chemical Materials in Hainan Superior Resources, Hainan University, Haikou 570228, PR China

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 17 September 2009

Received in revised form 20 November 2009

Accepted 21 November 2009

Available online 27 November 2009

Keywords:

Rutile TiO₂

High aspect ratio

Well faceted

Single crystal nanorods

ABSTRACT

Well faceted TiO₂ nanorods with a regular geometric configuration were hydrothermally prepared by chemical modification of TiCl₄ by ethylene glycol to slow down the reactivity of the precursor toward water. XRD patterns revealed that the as made products were pure rutile. The nanorods were highly crystalline and had an elongated prismatic shape. They grew in the [0 0 1] direction and have an aspect ratio of ~45. The rod size can also be tailored via recipe modification. Ag loaded TiO₂ was achieved upon exposure of the rutile nanorods to UV light in AgNO₃ aqueous solution. The photocatalytic activities of the pure and Ag loaded TiO₂ nanorods were evaluated by the photodegradation of phenol and methylene green (MG).

© 2009 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

TiO₂ has been extensively investigated owing to its notable functions for photocatalysis and photon–electron transfer. Anatase TiO₂ has been paid much greater attention than rutile because anatase had been considered to be more active than rutile. Recently, some authors reported that a synergistic effect of anatase and rutile mixed phases may enhance the photocatalytic activity [1–4], while others obtained the best results using pure rutile [5–9]. Deceleration of the electron–hole recombination rate is essential for improving the efficiency of the net charge transfer in photocatalysis [10–12]. Photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ is greatly influenced by many factors including specific surface area, crystal structure, crystallite size, morphology, shape, particle aggregation, phase composition, surface defects, and surface hydroxyl group content and so on [13,14]. These factors are strongly related to synthesis and processing routes [13]. Tsai and Cheng [15] compared several commercial and the lab-made TiO₂ samples in the photodegradation of phenol and found that the lab-made rutile without thermal annealing showed greatest activities in complete oxidation of phenol to CO₂. Upon systematical study of the

photocatalytic activity of a variety of hydrothermally prepared TiO₂ particles, Testino et al. [13] pointed out that high crystallinity and high aspect ratio are the key parameters to substantially improve the photocatalytic activity of rutile. These findings prompted us to prepare well-crystallized rutile TiO₂ nanorods with higher aspect ratio, because carriers can freely move along the length of the rods, which is expected to reduce the electron–hole recombination [12]. Furthermore, nanorods with high aspect ratio and large size are highly desirable as these nanoparticles are easier to be separated in water treatment [16–18].

TiO₂ nanocrystals with various morphologies and shapes have been prepared by many methods mainly including electrospraying, templating and hydrothermal preparation [19–25]. A distinct advantage of hydrothermal preparation over electrospraying or templating fabrication is that the as made product is crystalline, avoiding a thermal annealing step that consequently decreases the surface hydroxyl group content. However, it is relatively difficult to achieve nanorods with high aspect ratio like those obtained with electrospraying or templating fabrication by means of hydrothermal preparation. Controlling of the reaction rate is crucial in obtaining TiO₂ nanocrystals with the desired crystalline structure and/or shapes [24]. It has been shown that it is possible to modulate the hydrolysis rate by using oleic acid as a stabilizing surfactant to control the growth of TiO₂ nanorods, which have an reported aspect ratio of about 11 [12]. Furthermore, lauric acid and trioctylphosphine oxide, surface selective and nonselective surfactant, respectively, have been used to induce the shape evolution

* Corresponding author at: Department of Chemical Engineering, Lab of Petrochemical Technology, Hainan University, Renming Avenue 58, Haikou, PR China. Tel.: +86 898 66279226; fax: +86 898 66271762.

E-mail address: bearcr_82@hotmail.com (C. Xiong).

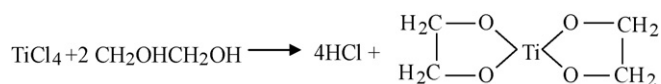
of TiO₂ nanocrystals due to the intrinsic anisotropic features of TiO₂ [26]. Another instance of surfactant modified reaction rate can be found in the article by Hyeon and co-workers [24], who synthesized TiO₂ nanorods with an aspect ratio of 9 using Pluronic P-123 (EO₂₀PO₇₀EO₂₀) triblock copolymer to control the hydrolysis and condensation of the titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) precursor. Herein, ethylene glycol was used to stabilize TiCl₄ during chemical modification to further enhance the aspect ratio and crystallinity of the TiO₂ nanorods. The as made TiO₂ nanorods have a higher aspect ratio than those reported previously in the literatures [12,24,26], i.e. 45 and a regular geometric configuration corresponding to rutile crystal, which was rarely seen in the previous reports.

The noble metal nanoparticle may act as a sink aiding electron–hole separation [27–30]. In recent years, noble metal/semiconductor oxide nanocomposites have been recognized to promote photocatalysis [10,31–33]. Ag modified TiO₂ has been prepared by various methods including precipitation deposition, incipient wet-impregnation, sol–gel method, MOCVD, and photoreduction under ultraviolet irradiation [34–36]. To maximize the efficiency of photocatalytic reactions on the as made TiO₂ nanorods, the nanorods were loaded with Ag through photoreduction of AgNO₃ under ultraviolet exposure.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of TiO₂ single crystal nanorods

In synthesis of sample A, 0.5 ml of TiCl₄ was dissolved in 12 ml of ethylene glycol under stirring, then 4.5 ml of 25% BaCl₂ aqueous solution was added at room temperature. The solution was clear and transparent probably owing to relative stability of the intermediate produced from the reaction of ethylene glycol with TiCl₄ as described in the following equation. The mixture was vigorously stirred for 1.5 h, and then transferred into a 20 ml Teflon-lined autoclave for hydrothermal treatment at 145 °C for 48 h. The precipitate was isolated by vacuum filtration, washed with acetone followed by deionized water, several additional TiO₂ samples were also prepared in the similar strategy.



2.2. Preparation of Ag loaded TiO₂ nanorods

The Ag loaded TiO₂ catalysts were prepared by photoreducing Ag⁺ ions to Ag on the TiO₂ surface as described in the literature [37]. 0.5 g of TiO₂ nanorods were suspended in 50 ml of 0.2 M AgNO₃ aqueous solution. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 3 with 1 M nitric acid. The mixture was exposed to air in a chamber and irradiated with UV light by eight mercury lamps (8 W) for 2 h under magnetically stirring. The Ag loaded TiO₂ was filtered and washed with DI water. The atomic ratio of Ag to Ti was determined using EDS analysis with Genesis microanalysis software combining energy-dispersive analysis of X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) algorithms for standardless quantification.

2.3. Characterization

The crystallinity of the TiO₂ was determined by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Scintag XDS 2000 X-ray diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation). The BET specific surface areas were determined on a Gemini V2365 porosimetry analyzer using N₂ adsorption–desorption. The morphology was evaluated by scanning electron microscopy (LEO 1530 VP field emission SEM) from Au/Pd coated samples. The microstructure was observed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using an FEI CM200 FEG transmission electron microscope at 200 kV.

2.4. Photodegradation of phenol

The photoreactor was a 100 ml cylindrical Pyrex flask, illuminated at the bottom through a 12 cm² of optical window illuminated by a HPM 500 W high-pressure mercury lamp through a water filter. The intensity of light reaching the photoreactor was 22 mW/cm² measured with a radiometer. Photodegradation of phenol was performed at room temperature. For all experiments, 15 mg of catalyst was dispersed in 70 ml of 300 ppm phenol aqueous solution with an oxygen flow of 10 ml min^{−1}. Before the reaction, the suspension was mechanically stirred for 30 min in a dark environment. The unreacted phenol was analyzed by high-pressure liquid chromatography (HP 1090). A column (ODS Hypersil 5 μm, 100 mm × 4.6 mm) with methanol/water (30/70, 0.4 ml/min) as an eluent was used. Detection was conducted by a UV detector at 280 nm.

2.5. Decolorization of dyes

The photocatalytic activities of the TiO₂ nanorods were also evaluated in photocatalytic decolorization of methylene green (MG, the dye content is ca. 65%). The initial MG concentration was 2.8 × 10^{−5} M with an initial pH of 5.6. For all experiments, the reaction solution contained 25 mg of catalyst and 70 ml of dye solution. The suspension was magnetically stirred in a dark environment at room temperature for 30 min to establish an adsorption–desorption equilibrium. The catalytic reactions were carried out using the same photoreactor and light source as stated in the photodegradation of phenol. The concentrations of MG at different intervals were calculated from UV–vis absorption spectra at 657.5 nm, the band corresponding to MG.

3. Results and discussion

The TiCl₄ dissolved in ethylene glycol was bright yellow in color possibly due to the formation of an ethylene glycol chelated Ti. The solution maintained clear even if BaCl₂ aqueous solution was added, which indicated that the intermediate was relatively stable to water at room temperature. Five different TiO₂ samples were prepared in the similar strategy for this study. The preparation recipes of the samples were summarized in Table 1. During the syntheses, the amounts of the TiCl₄, ethylene glycol and BaCl₂ were varied in the initial mixture to determine the influence of the reactant composition on the morphology of TiO₂ nanoparticles. XRD patterns in Fig. 1 reveal that a pure rutile phase was generated

Table 1
Summary of recipes and BET specific surface areas for different TiO₂ nanorod samples.

Sample	TiCl ₄ (ml)	Ethylene glycol (ml)	25% BaCl ₂ aqueous solution (ml)	Deionic water (ml)	BET surface areas of the TiO ₂ rods (m ² /g)
Sample A	0.5	12	4.5	0	42
Sample B	0.5	24	4.5	0	51
Sample C	0.5	12	0	3.5	44
Sample D	0.5	24	0	3.5	54
Sample E	0.5	0	4.5	12	53

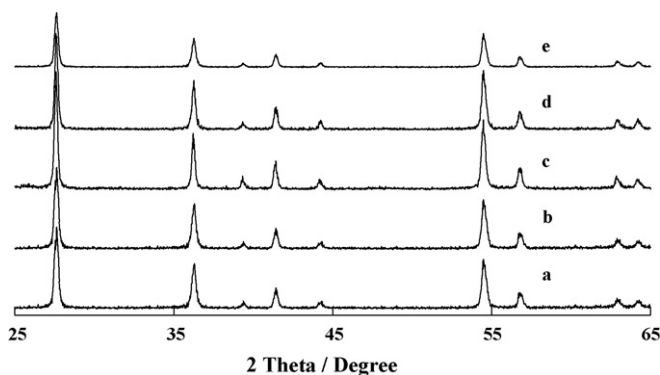


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the TiO_2 nanorods, (a)–(e) correspond to the samples A–E, respectively.

for the five samples under the autogenous acidic condition, since an acidic environment favors the corner-shared bonding and formation of rutile phase [13].

Fig. 2 displays SEM images of samples A–D. The TiO_2 nanocrystals of the four samples grow uniaxially, resulting in a rod-like morphology. Sample A consists of TiO_2 nanorods with a typical rutile crystal shape, an elongated prismatic configuration as

seen from the SEM images in Fig. 2a and b. The high resolution SEM image in Fig. 2b exhibits that the nanorods are well faceted and have a sharp geometric configuration, which are indicative of a good crystallization. The rods have a relatively uniform length up to $2\ \mu\text{m}$ and width of $45\ \text{nm}$. For the sample prepared with the lower TiCl_4 /ethylene glycol ratio, B, the rod sizes were decreased to $22\ \text{nm}$ in width and $1\ \mu\text{m}$ in length as shown in Fig. 2c and d. In terms of the two samples, the rods have an aspect ratio of about 45. BET specific surface areas of the samples A and B are 42 and $51\ \text{m}^2/\text{g}$, respectively. For the samples without the addition of BaCl_2 in the reactant mixture, debris was found on the rod surface as shown in Fig. 2e and f. In contrast, the rod surfaces of the samples A and B are very clean and smooth. For the samples C and D, BET specific surface areas are 44 and $54\ \text{m}^2/\text{g}$, respectively, which are a little higher than those of the samples A and B correspondingly, probably because of formation of the debris spots on the rod surfaces. Sample E, prepared without ethylene glycol, did not exhibit a rod-like morphology (as seen in Fig. S1) due to immediate hydrolysis of TiCl_4 in water.

Furthermore, it can be observed in the Fig. 2a, b and e that small amount of rutile nanorods twins with each other at an angle of 120° , forming “knee” shaped twins as highlighted with circles. Twinning occurs when two crystals appear to be growing out of (or into) each other as a result of an error during the crystallization

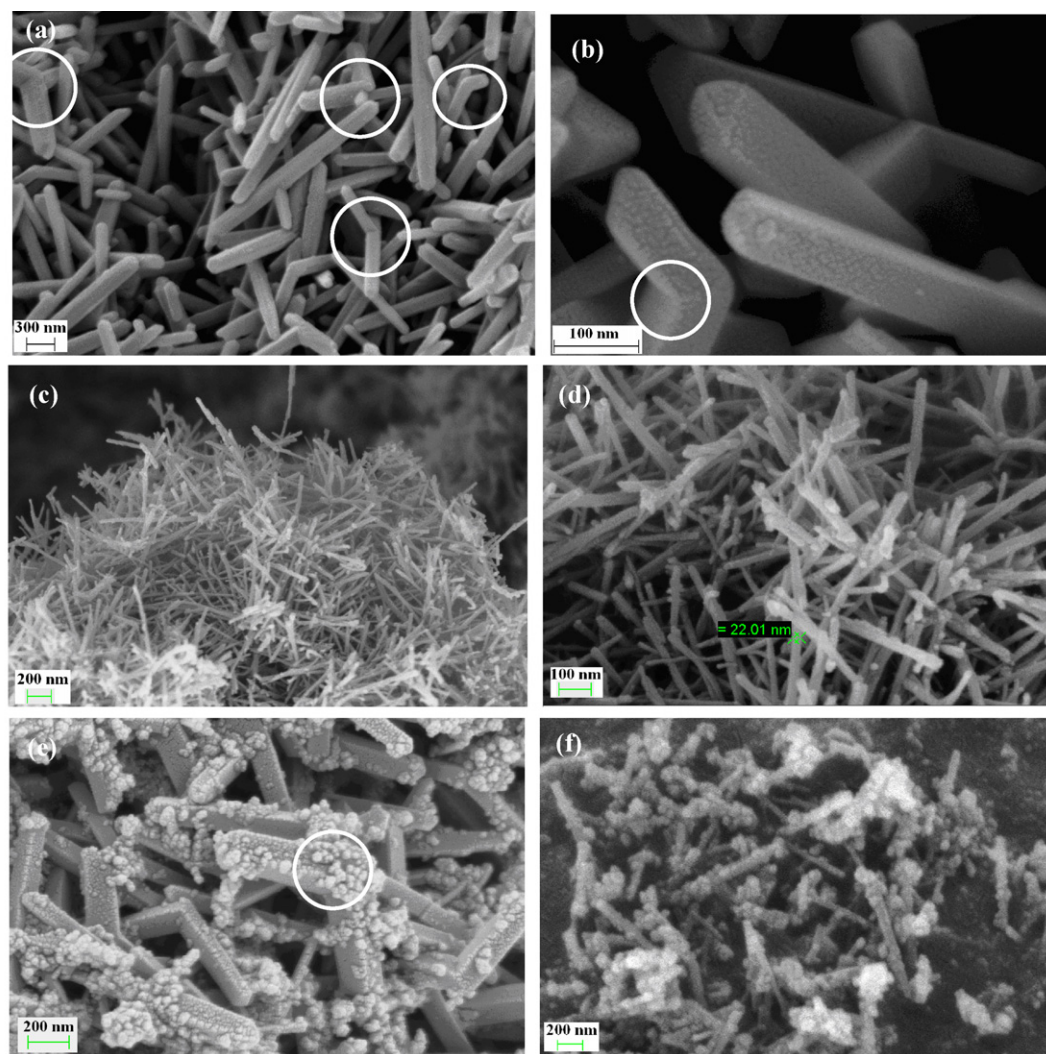


Fig. 2. SEM images of the TiO_2 nanorods, (a) and (b) correspond to the sample A, (c) and (d) correspond to the sample B, (e) and (f) correspond to the samples C and D, respectively.

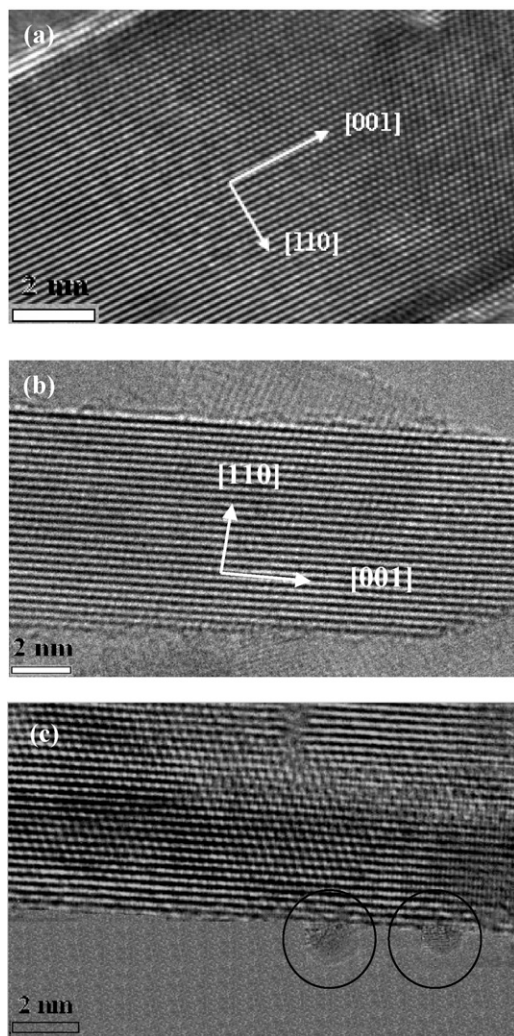


Fig. 3. HRTEM images of TiO_2 nanorods, (a) the sample A, (b) the sample B, and (c) the sample C.

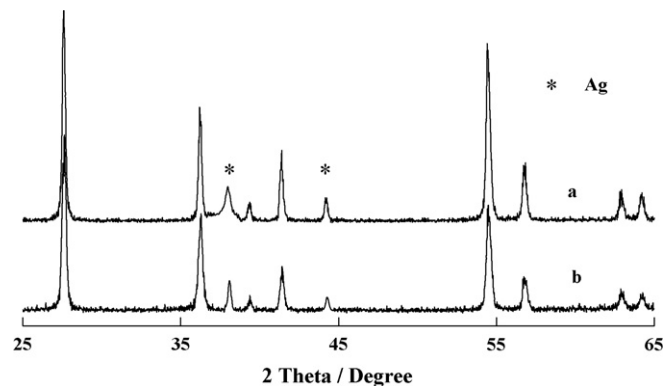
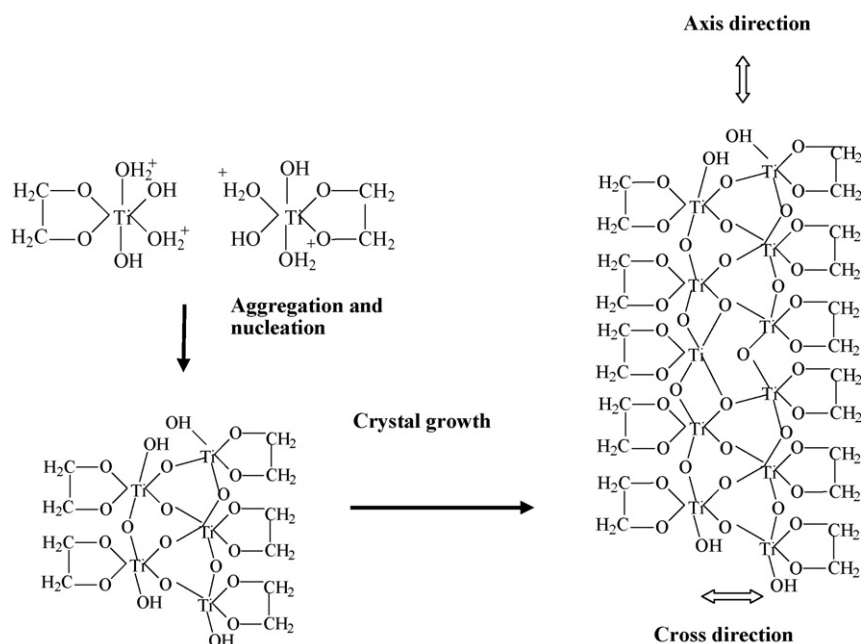


Fig. 4. XRD patterns of (a) the Ag loaded sample A, and (b) the Ag loaded sample B.

process. The HRTEM images in Fig. 3 further confirm that the nanorods are highly crystalline rutile. The lattice fringes of (1 1 0) planes show a d -spacing of 3.24 Å, and the nanorods grow in the [0 0 1] direction, which indicates that the growth of [0 0 1] direction is faster than the [1 1 0] direction. The predominant growth direction of [0 0 1] also agrees with rutile's inherent growth habit that was described in the reports [38–40]. The structure of rutile consists of TiO_6 octahedra chains, in which each octahedron shares a pair of opposite edges in the (0 0 1) plane. The debris spots were thought to be amorphous due to no fringes observed in the TEM image as shown in Fig. 3c.

Hydrolysis and polycondensation are two major factors affecting the growth and crystallinity of TiO_2 . The precursor TiCl_4 is known to readily react with water, whereas chelation of Ti by ethylene glycol appears to slow down the hydrolysis and force it to proceed slowly in the autoclave. At an early stage, partial hydrolysis primarily led to monoethylene glycol chelated TiO_6 octahedra. These organic modified TiO_6 monomers subsequently protonated and condensed under the acidic condition, giving rise to titania aggregation and nucleation as illustrated in Scheme 1. The Ti–O–Ti framework cores were surrounded by a hydrocarbon periphery, which is similar to the picture described by Weller and co-workers [12]. Cross growth of Ti–O–Ti framework is thus



Scheme 1. The formation process of the rod-like TiO_2 .

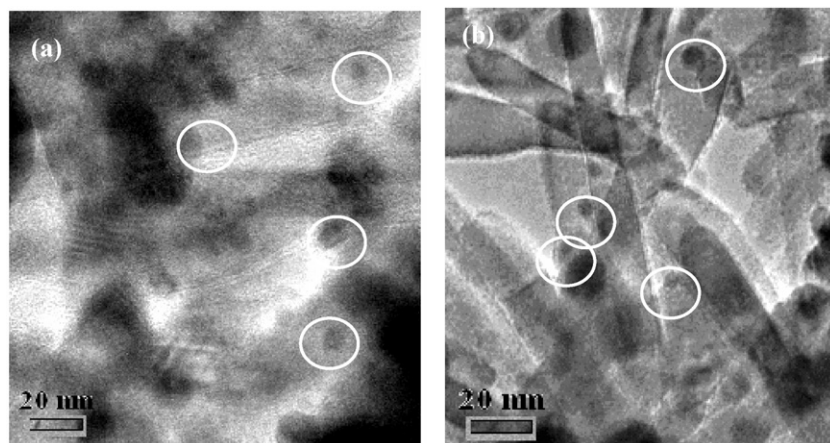


Fig. 5. TEM images of (a) the Ag loaded sample A, and (b) the Ag loaded sample B.

limited by the protection of the alkoxy groups. Consequently, the cores have a propensity to extend toward both ends, resulting in a rod-like morphology. The TiO_2 rods do not grow along the cross direction until the surrounding alkoxy groups are allowed to hydrolyze with longer autoclaving time. We assume that hydrolysis rate of the second alkoxy controls the width of the nanorods, and the condensation rate is relevant to the length. Therefore, the two rates are the most influential factors in structure and shape control, and the ratio of the rates determines the aspect ratio of the rods to some extent.

Sample B, containing an amount two times the ethylene glycol used relative to the sample A in the initial mixture, has smaller rod sizes but nearly the same aspect ratio. Ethylene glycol diluted the Ti precursor and water at the same time, which proportionately decreased the condensation rate and the hydrolysis rate of the second alkoxy. This means that the ratio of the condensation rate to the hydrolysis rate was the same for samples A and B, hence the dilution effect of ethylene glycol would not significantly affect the rod aspect ratio. The slower condensation rate and the slower hydrolysis rate could lead to generation of more nuclei in sample B with respect to sample A, which resulted in smaller rod sizes. For the samples C and D, the amorphous debris on the rod surfaces might be ascribed to a slow nucleation process in the absence of BaCl_2 [41]. Presence of the cation Ba^{2+} may enhance the rutile nucleation and growth, which is in good agreement with the parallel reports [42,43]. In addition, the Cl^- anion was also reported to enhance the nucleation [44]. The nucleophilic substitution of the chloride anion to the TiO_6 octahedra produced the chloride atom-substituted octahedral similar to the partially

hydrolyzed $\text{Ti}(\text{OH})_n\text{Cl}_m$. More Cl^- in the complex would be beneficial to the formation of the rutile phase [41,44,45].

Metallic silver may act as an electron trap, thereby enhancing the electron-hole pair separation and slowing the electron-hole recombination. To improve the photocatalysis activities of the rutile TiO_2 nanorods, the samples A and B were loaded with the Ag metal by photoreducing Ag^+ ions. The XRD patterns in Fig. 4 display the characteristic peaks of the Ag metal and indicated the presence of Ag in both samples. The metal Ag particles, as denoted by circles, can also be observed from the TEM images in Fig. 5. The atomic ratio of Ag to Ti for both samples was about 5.1% determined using EDS analysis. According to the literatures [15,34,35,46], the optimum Ag/Ti atomic ratio for photocatalysis was reported to be in the range of 2–6%.

The photocatalytic activities of the rutile TiO_2 nanorods were evaluated by photooxidation experiments of phenol. For comparison, Degussa P-25, the most commonly used TiO_2 -based photocatalyst (30 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles having a surface area of $\sim 50 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), was examined in the same photocatalytic reactions. The results are shown in Fig. 6. The half transformation time of phenol, $t_{1/2}$, is taken as a representative parameter to compare the degradation rates. The $t_{1/2}$ value decreases with the maximum degradation rate according to the previous report [13]. The $t_{1/2}$ values for different catalysts were read from the curves in Fig. 6. An apparent order of photocatalytic activities is as follows: the Ag loaded samples A and B > the samples A and B > Degussa P-25, the samples C and D > the sample E. The samples A and B exhibited much higher photocatalytic activities than Degussa P-25, which supports the previous reports that desirability of the rutile phase is

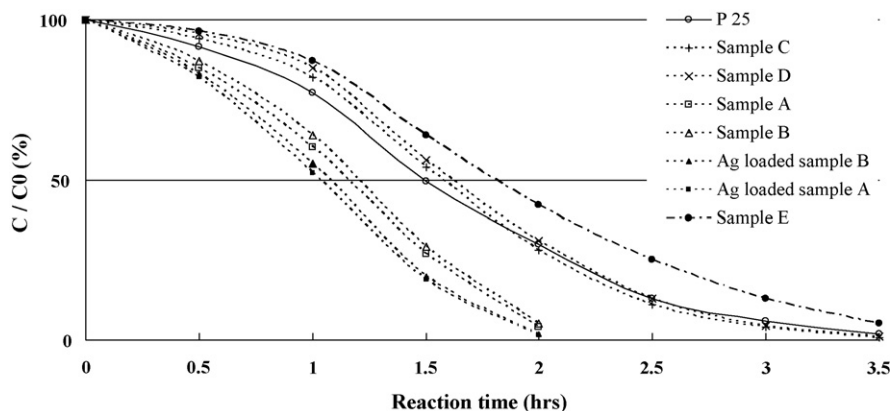


Fig. 6. Plot of percent conversion vs time for the photodegradation of phenol on rutile TiO_2 nanorods and P-25.

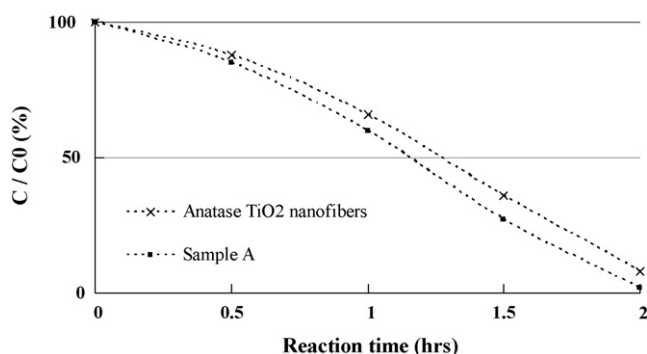


Fig. 7. Plot of percent conversion vs time for the photodegradation of phenol on the sample A and hollow anatase TiO₂ nanofiber shells.

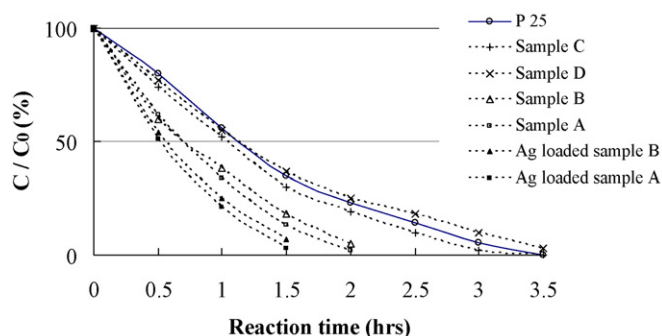


Fig. 8. Plot of conversion vs time for the photodegradation of MG on rutile TiO₂ nanorods and P-25.

comparable to the other phase composition in photocatalysis [1–5,13,15]. However, the sample C and sample D did not show better photocatalytic activities than P-25, possibly because the partial active sites on the rod surfaces were covered with amorphous particles. In terms of the sample E, the slowest degradation rate further demonstrated that the rod-like morphology, especially with high aspect ratio, is important for reducing the electron–hole recombination.

Compared with the pure TiO₂ rutile nanorods of the sample A and sample B, the Ag loaded ones have an increase of ~12% in the photodegradation activity, indicating that the dopant Ag can suppress the recombination of electron–hole pairs to some extent and increase photodegradation efficiency. Generally, the rods with smaller sizes have a higher surface to volume ratio, favoring the photocatalytic activity. However, the sample B with smaller rod sizes than those of the sample A, did not present an increased photodegradation rate. This is consistent with the previous observation by Testino et al. [13]. For a given aspect ratio, the electron–hole pair recombination is slower in the well faceted and bigger rutile TiO₂ particles, thus promoting a higher activity, despite the decrease of the specific surface area [13].

To make comparative reference to anatase, TiO₂ nanofibers with diameter of ~25 nm were prepared from mesoporous silica spheres according to a previously published report [20]. The specific surface area of the TiO₂ nanofibers is 46 m²/g. Their SEM images and XRD pattern are shown in Figs. S2 and S3, respectively. The fibers are anatase and polycrystalline [20]. Fig. 7 shows the results for the photodegradation of phenol catalyzed by the anatase nanofibers and the rutile nanorods under the same reaction conditions. It can be seen that the rutile nanorods displayed a faster photocatalysis reaction rate as compared to the anatase TiO₂ nanofibers, which indicated that

the well faceted rutile single crystal nanorods can more effectively suppress the recombination of electron–hole pairs and increase photodegradation efficiency compared to the anatase polycrystalline fibers.

In addition to phenol, the dye MG was also investigated as a substrate for photodegradation over the rutile TiO₂ nanorods. The results are shown in Fig. 8. The overall trend of the activities is very similar to that observed in the phenol photodegradation. In the photodegradation of MG, the samples A and B still presented higher photocatalytic activities than P-25. Likewise, the sample A showed a better photodegradation activity than the sample B, despite the fact that the sample B has a smaller rod size. As compared to the unloaded TiO₂ nanorods, the Ag loaded TiO₂ nanorods also exhibited a better activity. The time to completely bleach MG was 1.5 h on the Ag loaded samples, half an hour faster than the pure TiO₂.

4. Conclusions

In summary, well faceted TiO₂ single crystal nanorods have been hydrothermally prepared by chelating TiCl₄ with ethylene glycol to modulate the hydrolysis rate. Chemical modification of TiCl₄ by ethylene glycol was proven to be a rational strategy to tune the reactivity of the precursor toward water and produce the anisotropic Ti–O–Ti nuclei, leading to a shape control growth of TiO₂ particles. The as made TiO₂ nanorods were in the rutile phase and had an elongated prismatic rutile crystal shape with an aspect ratio of 45. The addition of BaCl₂ in the reactant mixture might enhance the TiO₂ nucleation and growth, effectively avoiding the formation of amorphous particles during the crystallization process. In the photodegradation of phenol and MG, well-crystallized rutile TiO₂ nanorods exhibited better catalytic activities than the partially crystallized ones and P-25. Additionally, the well faceted rutile TiO₂ nanorods with high aspect ratio could have a further application in the deep mineralization of recalcitrant organics. Ag loading may further suppress the recombination rate of the electron–hole pairs, which was demonstrated in our photodegradation reactions.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to acknowledge the Hainan University for financing this work.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2009.11.013.

References

- [1] R.R. Bacsá, J. Kiwi, Appl. Catal. B 16 (1998) 19.
- [2] D. Gurney, C. Morais, P. Bowen, C. Pulgarin, S. Giraldo, R. Hajdu, J. Kiwi, Appl. Catal. B 63 (2006) 76.
- [3] S. Watson, D. Beydoun, J. Scott, R. Amal, J. Nanopart. Res. 6 (2004) 193.
- [4] M. Yan, F. Chen, J. Zhang, M. Anpo, J. Phys. Chem. B 109 (2005) 8673.
- [5] S.S. Watson, D. Beydoun, J.A. Scott, R. Amal, Chem. Eng. J. 95 (2003) 213.
- [6] A. Mills, S.K. Lee, A. Lepre, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A 155 (2003) 199.
- [7] M.H. Habibi, H. Vosooghian, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A 174 (2005) 45.
- [8] D.D. Beck, R.W. Siegel, J. Mater. Res. 7 (1992) 2840.
- [9] T. Ohno, D. Haga, K. Fujihara, K. Kaizaki, M. Matsumura, J. Phys. Chem. B 101 (1997) 6415.
- [10] N. Sobana, M. Muruganadham, M. Swaminathan, J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem. 258 (2006) 124.
- [11] J.M.J. Laine, J.M. Herrmann, Appl. Catal. B 18 (1998) 281.
- [12] P.D. Cozzoli, A. Kornowski, H. Weller, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 125 (2003) 14539.
- [13] A. Testino, I.R. Bellobono, V. Buscaglia, C. Canevali, M. D'Arienzo, S. Polizzi, R. Scotti, F. Morazzoni, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 129 (2007) 3564.
- [14] J. Yu, J. Xiong, B. Cheng, S. Liu, Appl. Catal. B 60 (2005) 211.
- [15] S.J. Tsai, S.F. Cheng, Catal. Today 33 (1997) 227–237.

- [16] C.E. Bonancêa, G.M. do Nascimento, M.L. de Souza, M.L.A. Temperini, P. Corio, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 69 (2006) 34–42.
- [17] R. Comparelli, E. Fanizza, M.L. Curri, P.D. Cozzoli, G. Mascolo, A. Agostiano, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 60 (2005) 1–11.
- [18] S. Mozia, M. Tomaszewska, A.W. Morawski, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 59 (2005) 131–137.
- [19] C.R. Xiong, K.J. Balkus Jr., *Chem. Mater.* 17 (2005) 5136.
- [20] C.R. Xiong, M.J. Kim, K.J. Balkus Jr., *Small* 2 (2006) 52.
- [21] F. Bosc, A. Ayral, P. Albouy, C. Guizard, *Chem. Mater.* 15 (2003) 2463.
- [22] M. Niederberger, M.H. Hartl, G.D. Stucky, *Chem. Mater.* 14 (2002) 4364.
- [23] D.P. Serrano, G. Calleja, R. Sanz, P. Pizarro, *Chem. Commun.* (2004) 1000.
- [24] S. Han, S.H. Choi, S.S. Kim, M. Cho, B. Jang, D.Y. Kim, J. Yoon, T. Hyeon, *Small* 1 (2005) 812.
- [25] K. Nagaveni, G. Sivalingam, M.S. Hegde, G. Madras, *Appl. Catal. B* 48 (2004) 83.
- [26] Y.W. Jun, M.F. Casula, J.H. Sim, S.Y. Kim, J. Cheon, A.P. Alivisatos, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 125 (2003) 15981.
- [27] A. Scialfani, J.M. Herrmann, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem. 113 (1998) 181.
- [28] A. Wold, *Chem. Mater.* 5 (1993) 280.
- [29] V. Subramanian, E. Wolf, P. Kamat, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 105 (2001) 11439.
- [30] B.E. Hayden, A. King, M.A. Newton, N. Yoshikawa, *J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.* 167 (2001) 33.
- [31] S. Sena, S. Mahantya, S. Roy, O. Heintzb, S. Bourgeois, D. Chaumont, *Thin Solid Films* 474 (2005) 245.
- [32] J.M. Herrmann, H. Tahiria, Y. Ait-Ichoub, G. Lassaletta, A.R. Gonzalez-Elipe, A. Fernbdez, *Appl. Catal. B* 13 (1997) 219.
- [33] H. Tada, K. Teranishi, S. Ito, *Langmuir* 15 (1999) 7084.
- [34] X. Zhang, M. Zhou, L. Lei, *Mater. Chem. Phys.* 91 (2005) 73.
- [35] C. He, Y. Yu, X.F. Hu, A. Larbot, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* 200 (2002) 239.
- [36] A. Dobosz, A. Sobczynski, *Water Res.* 37 (2003) 1489.
- [37] V. Vamathevan, R. Amal, D. Beydoun, G. Low, S. McEvoy, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 148 (2002) 233.
- [38] K. Yang, J. Zhu, J. Zhu, S. Huang, X. Zhu, G. Ma, *Mater. Lett.* 57 (2003) 4639.
- [39] W.J. Li, E.W. Shi, Z.W. Yin, *J. Cryst. Growth* 208 (2000) 546.
- [40] P. Peng, X. Liu, C. Sun, J. Ma, W. Zheng, *J. Solid State Chem.* 182 (2009) 1003.
- [41] H. Yin, Y. Wada, T. Kitamura, S. Kambe, S. Murasawa, H. Mori, T. Sakata, S. Yanagid, *J. Mater. Chem.* 11 (2001) 1694.
- [42] F.D. Duminica, F. Maury, R. Hausbrand, *Surf. Coat. Technol.* 201 (2007) 9304.
- [43] P. Evans, T. English, D. Hammond, M.E. Pemble, D.W. Sheel, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 321 (2007) 140.
- [44] K. Yanagisawa, J. Ovenstone, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 103 (1999) 7781.
- [45] H. Cheng, J. Ma, Z. Zhao, L. Qi, *Chem. Mater.* 7 (1995) 663.
- [46] Y. Cao, H. Tan, T. Shi, T. Tang, J. Li, *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 83 (2008) 546–552.